Lecture 3: E/R modeling

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Lecturer: Rasmus Pagh
Today’s lecture

• What you should remember from last week.
• Data modeling - why and how?
• The basic entity-relationship (E/R) data model.
• E/R concepts and examples.
• Rules for designing a good E/R model.
• How to go from an E/R data model to a relational database schema.
• Advanced E/R concepts and examples.
In this lecture I will assume that you remember:

- The concepts of the relational data model:
  - Data model
  - Relation schema
  - Database schema (i.e., the collection of relation schemas)
  - Attributes
  - Relation instance
  - Atomic type
Data modeling is the process of creating a data model for a given set of data.

Data modeling is a major part in developing software (no matter what programming language is used).

For programming relational databases, the data modeling should ultimately produce a relational data model.
The way data is stored is very important for the way in which it can be accessed and manipulated using SQL.

A good data model is one for which:

- It is easy to write correct and understandable queries.
- No change is needed for minor changes in the problem domain.
- If the problem domain changes significantly, it is easy to modify the data model and associated programs.

Sometimes it is also necessary to consider the data model’s impact on the efficiency of database operations.
Today and next week we will cover the dominant design methodology for relational databases, which consists of three steps:

1. Identify all relevant Entities and Relationships, and describe them using so-called E/R diagrams.

2. Convert the E/R model to a number of relation schemas.

3. Eliminate (or reduce) redundancy by splitting relations. This process is called normalization. (Next week.)
Next: The basic entity-relationship (E/R) data model
What is an entity?

An entity is an object of some sort (not necessarily physical).

Examples of entities:

“Die Hard” (an abstract object), “Bruce Willis” (a physical object).

We group similar entities into entity sets.

Examples of entity sets: “Movies”, “stars”.
To every entity set we associate a number of attributes, which can be thought of as properties of the entity set.

Example:
The entity set “stars” might be given attributes name, address, gender, and birthdate.

Values of attributes:
For each entity in the entity set, the attributes will be associated with values (e.g., the name, address, gender and birthdate of Bruce Willis). Like in the relational data model, we assume these values to be atomic.
Two entity sets may be connected in some way. In the E/R model this can be expressed as a relationship.

**Example:**

The “movies” and “stars” entity sets are connected by actors starring in movies. For example, “Die Hard” is connected to “Bruce Willis”.

Formally, a relationship between entity sets A and B is a set of tuples \((a,b)\), where entity \(a\) belongs to A, and \(b\) belongs to entity B.

Didn’t we see this definition before?

*Answer in two slides.*
How to identify entities

In most cases, an entity can be identified uniquely within its entity set by the values of its attributes.

A set of attributes whose values uniquely identify an entity in its entity set is called a key of the entity set.

I.e., there can be no two entities with the same values on the key attributes.

Example:
The CPR-number attribute is a key for the entity set of Danish citizens.

If there are several possible keys, we choose one of them as the primary key.
**Relationships are relations**

What is called a relationship in the E/R model is *exactly* what we defined last time as a relation.

- Entity sets correspond to the domains of the values.
- Tuples correspond to connections between entities.
- We can draw relationship instances as a table, like relation instances:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movies</th>
<th>Stars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic Instinct</td>
<td>Sharon Stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Recall</td>
<td>Arnold Schwarzenegger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Recall</td>
<td>Sharon Stone</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** We use the attribute values of a key for each entity set to identify entities (unrealistically assuming that name is a key for Stars and Movies).
E/R diagrams are graphical notation for E/R data models. In this course we use the notation described in GUW.

**Basics:**

- Attributes are represented by ovals.
- Relationships are represented by diamonds.
- Entity sets are represented by rectangles, with lines to its attributes and relationships.

If an entity set has one or more keys, we underline the attributes in its primary key.

[Figure 2.17 shown on slide]
Suppose we want to design a database for a bank, with information on customers and their accounts, including:

- Names
- Addresses
- Phone numbers
- Customer type (e.g. business or private)
- CPR numbers
- Account numbers
- Account types
- Account balances

Design an E/R diagram for the database.
Next: E/R concepts and examples
Multi-way relationships

Relationships may connect *any* number of entity sets.

For example, a relationship among entity sets A, B, and C is a set of triples \((a,b,c)\), where \(a\), \(b\), and \(c\) come from A, B, and C, respectively. Intuitively, the entities in these triples “are connected” or “belong together”.

**Note:** This is different from having three relationships among A-B, B-C, and A-C. (Why?)

[Figure 2.4 from Example 2.5 shown on slide]
We use arrows to indicate the **multiplicity** of a relationship.

An arrow from a relationship R to an entity set E means that:

Every set of entities in the other entity sets of R is connected by R to **at most one** entity in E.

[Figure 2.3 from Example 2.4 shown on slide]

The multiplicity of a **binary** relationship (i.e., involving two entity sets) can be categorized as **one-one**, **many-one**, or **many-many**.
Sometimes it is convenient to associate attributes with a relationship.

The meaning is that every tuple of entities connected by the relationship is associated with a value for each attribute.

In E/R diagrams, the attributes are drawn by connecting the relationship with an oval containing the attribute name.

[Figure 2.7 shown on slide]
It is perfectly possible that there are several (different) relationships between the same entity sets.

[Figure 2.9 shown on slide]

Also, an entity set may be involved several times in the same relationship. In this case we label the lines with different name (called **roles**).

[Figure 2.5 from Example 2.6 shown on slide]
[Figure 2.6 from Example 2.7 shown on slide]
Next: Rules for designing a good E/R model
Good data modeling can be difficult, as there may be many choices of what data model to choose.

The following design principles can be useful when considering a design:

- Be faithful to the specification of the application.
- Avoid duplication and other redundant information.
- The KISS principle (Keep It Simple, Stupid). [Figure 2.11]
- Choose the right relationships. [Figure 2.17, 2.12]
- Use attributes when possible. [Figure 2.17]
Consider the E/R model of a bank database in Figure 2.14 on page 45 of GUW.

It tries to model the fact that accounts may be held jointly by several customers, by letting each account belong to an “account set”.

Criticize the design:

- What design rules are violated and why?
- What modifications would you suggest?
Next: From an E/R model to a relational database schema
We first consider *entity sets that have keys*, i.e., where there can be no two entities with the same attributes.

The corresponding relation then simply has the attributes of the entity set as its attributes. Easy!

[Figure 2.17]
We assume that the entity sets connected by the relationship all have a key.

The relation corresponding to a relationship then has the following attributes:

- The primary key attributes for each entity set involved in the relationship.
- Any attributes of the relationship itself.

It may be necessary to rename attributes if there are duplicate names.

[Figure 2.17, 2.12]
Sometimes the translation to relation schemas results in more relations than necessary (or convenient).

**Example:** If there is a *many-one relationship* $R$ between entity sets $E$ and $F$, we can combine the relations corresponding to $E$ and $R$ into a single relation with a schema consisting of:

- The attributes of $E$,
- the key attributes of $F$, and
- any attributes belonging to $R$.

[Figure 2.17]
Consider our revised version of the E/R diagram in Figure 2.14.

Convert the E/R data model into a relational database schema.
Next: Advanced E/R concepts and examples
In addition to what data is stored, it is often important for a data model to specify properties of the data stored.

Such properties are expressed as constraints:

“Not all values are possible, only those where. . .”.

We already saw examples of single value constraints in the E/R model:

- Keys.
- Many-one relationships.

As we saw, such constraints are useful when converting the E/R model to a relational schema.
- **Referential integrity constraints**: Exactly one value exists in a given role.

- **Domain constraints** restricting the value of some attribute.

- **Multiplicity constraints** on the number of entities connected to a single entity by a relationship.

- **General constraints**, expressed in a constraint-expression language (more on this in the lecture covering chapter 7).
In E/R diagrams we may:

- Indicate by a rounded arrow the referential integrity constraint that the entity connected by some relationship is required to exist. [Figure 2.18]

- Indicate multiplicity constraints on the lines connecting a relationship. [Figure 2.19]
Often, constraints are part of the database schema, and checked by the DBMS in connection with updates.

Updates that violate a schema constraint are either not allowed, or cause other data to change in order to satisfy the constraint. (Lecture 8.)

**Example:** In SQL, the schema

```sql
MovieStar(
    name CHAR(30) PRIMARY KEY,
    address CHAR(255),
    gender CHAR(1),
    birthday DATE)
```

declares the constraint that name is the primary key for MovieStar.
Sometimes entities in an entity set are not uniquely identified by their attribute values.

This may happen, e.g., when entities in one entity set are subunits of other entities. [Figure 2.20]

But we need a key to do the conversion to relations.!

To get a key for a weak entity set $E$, we need to use attributes of other entity sets, namely the key attributes of the entities to which it has **supporting relationships**.
Suppose each entity $e$ in a weak entity set $E$ is connected to exactly one entity $f$ in another entity set $F$.

Then the attribute values of $f$ can also be thought of as belonging to $e$.

Hence, the attributes of $F$ may be used to help distinguish entities in $E$.

[Figure 2.20]
Suppose that E is a weak entity set, and the F is an entity set connected to E by a relationship R.

R is a supporting relationship for E if:

• It is a binary, many-one relationship from E to F.

• We can put a rounded arrow on the line from R to F in the E/R diagram, i.e., there is a unique entity in F corresponding to every entity of E.

Notes:

• If F has several supporting relationships to E we need to include the key attributes of E several times.

• E may itself be a weak entity set, so its keys may come from other entity sets.
Weak entity sets in E/R diagrams

- A weak entity set is drawn as a rectangle with double border.
- A supporting relationship is drawn as a diamond with double border.
- We underline any attributes of a weak entity set that are part of its key.

[Figure 2.20]
As a minimum, you should after this week:

- Be able to use the E/R data model to describe a database, including:
  - Choice of keys.
  - Deciding whether relationships are one-one, many-one, or many-many.
  - Deciding referential integrity constraints.
  - Drawing the E/R data model as an E/R diagram.
- Be able to convert an E/R data model to a relational database schema.
Next week we will see how to use so-called normalization to improve a relational database schema:

• Functional dependencies – the “bad guys” we wish to eliminate.
• Splitting relations to remove functional dependencies.
• Goal: Get the schema in “normal form” (3NF, BCNF, or 4NF).